

Final Technical Report

Reactive Multiphase Behavior of CO₂ in Saline Aquifers Beneath the Colorado Plateau

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ABSTRACT

Over 100 million tonnes (Mt) of CO₂ is released to the atmosphere each year from power plants located in the Colorado Plateau and southern Rocky Mountains region of the U.S. This region contains broad anticlinal structures, not generally thought of as gas traps, that may be suitable for permanent sequestration of CO₂. Field studies and numerical simulations of naturally occurring CO₂ reservoirs at Springerville-St. Johns, AZ-NM, Farnham Dome, UT and Crystal Geysers-Ten Mile Graben, UT have been conducted to quantitatively evaluate the factors that control the mobility of CO₂ under geologic conditions. Soil gas flux measurements show no evidence of leakage today at Springerville-St. Johns and at Farnham Dome, although there is clear evidence that CO₂ was discharged to the atmosphere in the past. At Crystal Geysers-Ten Mile Graben, localized points of CO₂ discharge occur along fault zones. The bulk of the CO₂ at these sites is stored as gas accumulations and as dissolved species in the ground water. These observations suggest that monitoring the leakage of CO₂ will present major challenges.

The numerical simulations suggest that the anticlinal structures could serve as CO₂ repositories. The models suggest approximately 70% of the injected CO₂ can be permanently sequestered. The simulations predict that minerals may trap up to 20% of the CO₂ but investigations of core samples from Springerville-St. Johns suggest the sequestration of CO₂ in mineral phases in this field has been insignificant and in general, may be less important than previously considered. The importance of mineral trapping requires additional attention.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Few naturally occurring CO₂ reservoirs have been investigated as analogues of sequestration sites. The Colorado Plateau-southern Rocky Mountain region of the US contains natural CO₂ reservoirs, geologic structures that may be suitable for permanent sequestration of CO₂ and collocated power plants that discharge 100 million tonnes (Mt) of CO₂ to the atmosphere each year. Field studies were conducted at three sites within the region: Springerville-St. Johns, Arizona-New Mexico, Farnham Dome, Utah and Crystal Geysers-Ten Mile Graben, Utah. Field observations and numerical simulations were utilized to address a number of specific sequestration issues. These included the sequestration of CO₂ by trapping under low permeability seals, direct precipitation of CO₂-bearing minerals through reactions with saline aquifer fluids, fluid-mineral reactions leading to the precipitation of new minerals, fluid-fluid reactions and their significance in controlling. The investigations conclude that broad anticlinal structures, not generally thought of as gas traps, may be suitable for permanent sequestration of CO₂ and that the CO₂ will occur principally as gas accumulations and as dissolved carbonate species in the ground water. Outflows of these waters represent a continuous source of leakage of CO₂ from the reservoirs, and present particular challenges for long term monitoring. Leakage of CO₂ to the atmosphere was observed at isolated locations along faults zones at Crystal Geysers-Ten Mile Graben but not at the other sites, although geologic evidence of past discharges has been found. The locations of these points of leakage cannot be predicted. Permanent trapping of CO₂ in mineral phases was found to be insignificant at Springerville-St. Johns, but the numerical simulations suggest it may be important elsewhere in the region. Additional field studies are needed to assess the significance of this trapping mechanism.

EXPERIMENTAL

Not applicable.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Background

The production of over 10,000 MW of electricity from power plants located within the Colorado Plateau and adjacent Rocky Mountain region results in the emission of over 100 million tonnes (Mt) of CO₂ each year to the atmosphere. This region contains numerous natural CO₂ fields (Fig. 1). Several of these fields are presently in production, with most of the CO₂ (25 Mt/year) being piped 800 km to enhanced oil recovery projects in west Texas.

The occurrence of natural CO₂ reservoirs around the Colorado Plateau, widespread saline aquifers at depth, and bicarbonate aquifers at shallow depth offer the potential to sequester all the CO₂ currently being emitted from the local coal-fired power plants. At least three large natural CO₂ reservoirs have been significantly depleted due to past production (Farnham Dome, UT; McElmo Dome, CO; and Bravo Dome, NM), and have proven storage potential available. Undeveloped reservoirs (e.g. Springerville, AZ, Gordon Creek, UT) and analogous geologic structures that do not contain CO₂ may also serve as repositories for additional CO₂. When these factors are combined with the existing CO₂ pipelines linking the region with west Texas, the Colorado Plateau would appear to be strategically important in the U.S. for demonstrating the feasibility of long-term subsurface CO₂ sequestration.

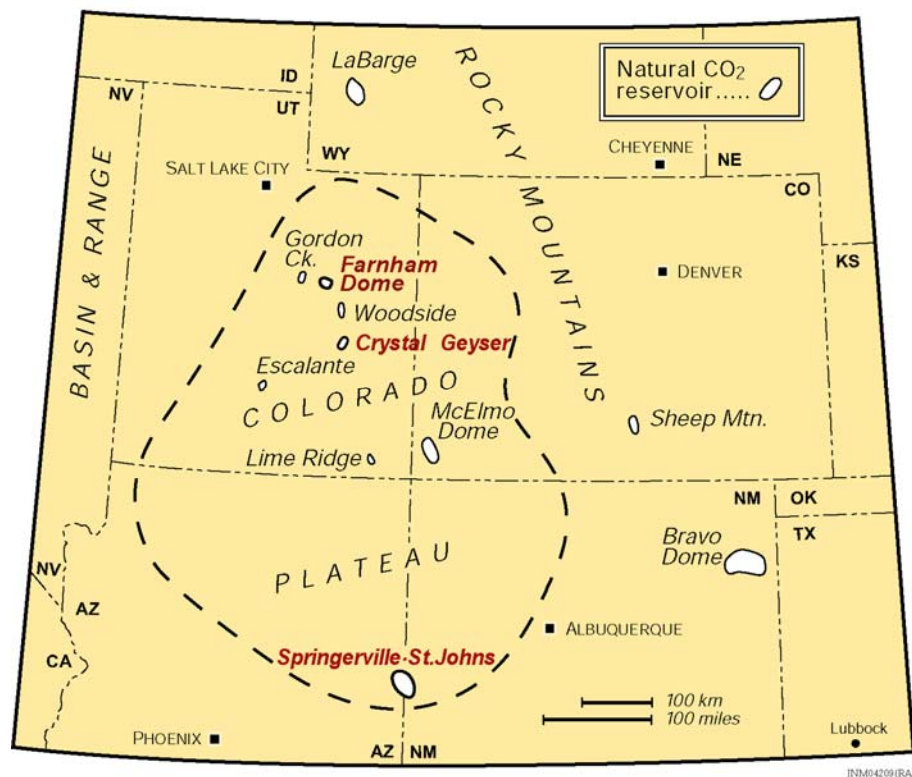


Fig. 1. Natural CO₂ occurrences on the Colorado Plateau, with the three occurrences discussed in this paper highlighted in red. Crystal Geyser is the site of CO₂ seepages along the Little Grand Wash fault zone, and in the Ten Mile Graben.

The purpose of the research conducted under this investigation was to use the CO₂ reservoirs that occur beneath the Colorado Plateau as natural analogues for quantitatively evaluating the effects of CO₂ sequestration in the U.S. Rocky Mountain – Colorado Plateau region. A variety of sequestration strategies and environmental issues were explicitly considered. These included the sequestration of CO₂ by trapping under low permeability seals, direct precipitation of CO₂-bearing minerals through reactions with saline aquifer fluids, fluid-mineral reactions leading to the precipitation of new minerals, fluid-fluid reactions and their significance in controlling the mobility of CO₂ and the escape of CO₂ to the atmosphere.

Previous Investigations

Prior to the initiation of our investigation, direct study of the reactive effects of CO₂ on the Colorado Plateau reservoir rocks appears to be limited to the unpublished Bravo Dome report of Amoco (Nelis, 1994), referred to by Pearce et al., (1996). Fouret (1982, 1996) investigated the depositional history and diagenesis at the Lisbon field, where late-stage CO₂ should have left an overprint. A request by the PI (Allis) to BP-Amoco for release of the Nelis report resulted in a deferral for the moment while this company establishes its CO₂ research program (S. Baines, D. Thomas, email comms., 12/99 appended in A.3). The communications left open the possibility of collaboration next year. However the key results from Nelis (1994) are described in Pearce et al. (1996). Feldspars are corroded, but some of this is attributed to early phases of burial. Ferroan dolomite, kaolinite, zeolites, and in one area of the field, chlorite, occur as late overgrowths or infilling minerals. There is also evidence of removal of earlier kaolinite. Zeolite formation appears strongest along the northwest-trending fault/flexure of the reservoir. Zones of high porosity graded into zones of much reduced porosity due to the presence of authigenic cements such as gibbsite and kaolinite.

At the Lisbon field (UT), the carbonate reservoir is characterized by moldic porosity, where calcitic fossils have been leached from their dolomite host. However the overlying limestone “packstone” has lower porosity and permeability, and not been leached (Fouret, 1996). Late stage silicification, and pore-filling secondary anhydrite, dolomite and calcite are also present.

Elsewhere on the Colorado Plateau, bleaching of red sandstone aquifers has been attributed to reduction of hematite due to acidic fluids (Sanford, 1995). The cause of the acidity was attributed to organic acids associated with kerogen maturation, but we believe migration of CO₂ gas is more likely (e.g. see Killops et al., 1996; CO₂ is related to early maturation of coal, immediately preceding oil generation). Sanford (1995) points out that immediately prior to oil migration in the White Rim Sandstone around the Green and Colorado Rivers, dissolution of early calcite cement, silica overgrowths and kaolinite formation occurred as a result of acidic pore fluid interactions. At a nearby site, Breit and Goldhaber (1996) suggest that late stage reducing solutions, perhaps as saline fluids rising up fault zones, have caused precipitation of calcite, dolomite and barite in the overlying aquifers. Similarly, close to the Moab fault (east Utah), late-stage reducing solutions have caused calcite, ankerite, barite and pyrite cements and veining (Foxford et al., 1996). These solutions may be important

analogues for assessing and simulating the effects of leaking CO₂-rich fluids from CO₂ sequestration projects.

Project Results

Field investigations and numerical simulations were conducted at Springerville-St. Johns (AZ-NM) and in Utah at Farnham Dome, Crystal Geyser and Ten Mile Graben. The results have been presented at the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th National Conferences on Carbon Sequestration, the 6th International Conference on Greenhouse Gas Control Technologies, held in Kyoto, Japan, at the annual meetings of the Geological Society of America, American Geophysical Union and Association of Petroleum Geologists and in a special volume of Chemical Geology on "Geochemical Aspects of CO₂ Sequestration". A list of the papers generated as a result of this project is presented in the References. The full texts of the papers presented in Chemical Geology are included as Appendix 1 and 2.

Springerville-St. Johns, Arizona-New Mexico

Springerville-St. Johns provides a natural example of a leaky reservoir (Fig. 2; Appendix 1). The CO₂ occurs in Permian siliciclastic rocks of the Supai Formation at depths of less than ~800 m. Shales and anhydrite beds form low permeability seals. At the surface, extensive travertine (calcium carbonate) deposits record the effects of CO₂ discharged to the atmosphere by spring waters. Much of this CO₂ may have been derived from the dissolution of limestone within the reservoir. ¹⁴C AMS dating of pollen trapped in the travertine deposits suggest that the system began to leak at ~3500 years BP (Table 1, Fig. 2). The youngest dated deposit had an age of 887 years BP. The maximum difference in elevation between the lowest and highest dated sample is 338 m. Although springs are associated with many of the deposits, there is no evidence of travertine precipitation today.

Faults that cut the underlying preCambrian granite serve as conduits for the upward migration of the gas. Flux measurements indicate that CO₂ no longer reaches the surface. However, chemical analyses of ground waters record high concentrations of bicarbonate, documenting the continued flux of CO₂ from depth. These fluids migrate down the hydrologic gradient, dispersing the CO₂ away from the reservoir. The ultimate fate of the CO₂ transported in ground waters is not known. Investigations of rock samples taken from cores drilled into the reservoir indicate that little CO₂ has been permanently sequestered in mineral phases. Only traces of dawsonite, a mineral generally considered to be an important trap have been observed. These results question the importance of mineral trapping. At Springerville-St. Johns, CO₂ occurs primarily as dissolved carbonate species and gas accumulations.

In order to understand the changes suggested by geologic evidence, we have modeled the hydrology of the system, including the reactive chemistry of the rock-fluid interactions on a broad scale. A TOUGH2/ChemTOUGH2 integrated finite difference model (see White et al., 2004). In this modeling we assume that the CO₂ in the reservoir results from a magmatic pulse of CO₂ and water lasting 5000 years beginning 10,000 years BP. This time frame provides flexibility for varying the pulse length and rock properties. Although the pulse was initiated 10000 years BP, we find that the modeled results and conclusions do not change if the pulse is initiated at a later time. In the simulation, the groundwater table is elevated as a result the pressure increases from the magmatic pulse. For simplicity, the effects of erosion by the Little Colorado River have been ignored. The cross-section is divided into elements

with the element geometry determined by the need to reproduce interfaces between the geological layers (Figs. 3 and 4).

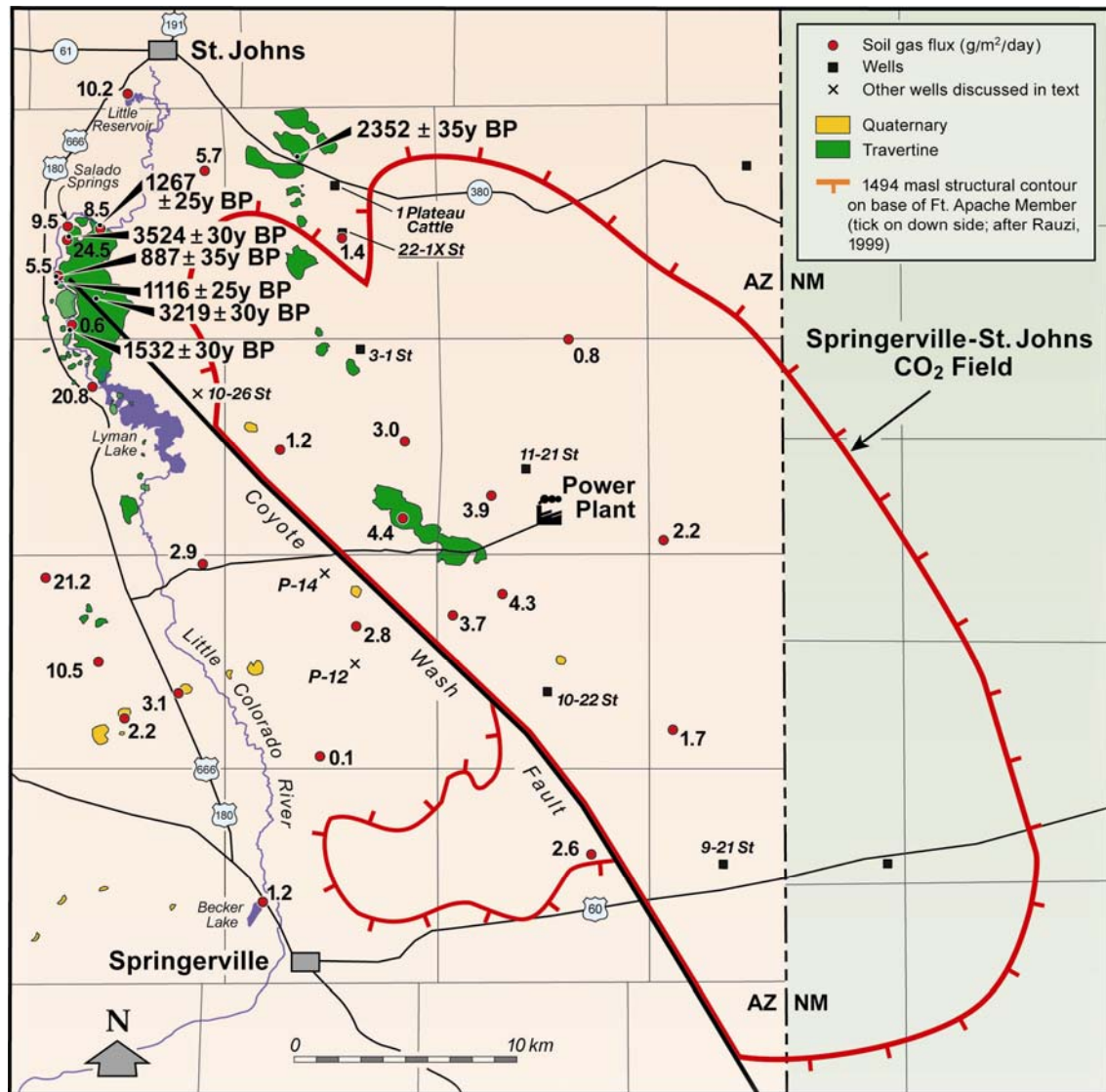


Fig. 2. Map of the Springerville-St. Johns CO₂ field area showing the locations of the travertine deposits, their ages in years BP (y BP), wells locations, and the results of soil gas flux measurements.

Table 1. ^{14}C AMS ages, locations and elevations of the travertine deposits at Springerville-St. Johns.

Sample #	mE	mN	Elevation (ft)	Age (y BP)	uncertainty
1	647247	3810848	5955	3524	30
2	646712	3808968	5880	887	35
3	662651	3798459	6970	undatable	
4	648682	3811171	5870	1267	25
5	647386	3806761	5900	1532	30
6	648539	3808007	6159	3219	30
7	657506	3814477	6240	2352	35
8	646838	3808876	5860	1116	25
Salado Spg. Outflow			5840	0	
1. Travertine dome near Salado Spgs; sample 1 m below rim, in vent 2. East side of dome, half way from summit; near Little Colorado River 3. Voight's Mesa; from travertine slab 100 m from central crater, west side of summit. 4. Upper flank of travertine slab on north-facing slope above Little Colorado River. 5. Dome, 10 m height on flood plain adjacent to Little Colorado River; sample from flank. 6. Dome on alluvial bench above sample 5; sample 30 cm below rim, inside crater. 7. Older vent area either side of road east of St Johns. Sample from northern side. 8. Small dome adjacent to Little Colorado River, flowed historically from vent (notch cut in side).					

Boundary Conditions

Boundary conditions for the numerical model are

- Atmospheric pressure at the surface
- 0.3 cm annual infiltration
- Constant hydrostatic pressure on both the vertical boundaries
- No fluid flow over most of the base of the model
- A magmatic pulse of CO_2 (2 kg/s) and water (6 kg/s) flows into the base of the model for a period of 5000 years.
- Isothermal reservoir at 40°C throughout.

Capillary pressure functions

Capillary pressure functions for the seal rocks within the Colorado Plateau are presented by White et al. (2004).

Permeability

The Permian Supai Formation consists of four members, the Corduroy Member, Fort Apache Member, Big A Butte Member and Amos Wash Member. There are multiple impermeable anhydrite and mudstone layers within these formations leading to vertical segregation of the CO_2 into several zones. It is not possible to represent all the anhydrite layers in the numerical model; however the two largest regions of anhydrite are included as low permeability layers

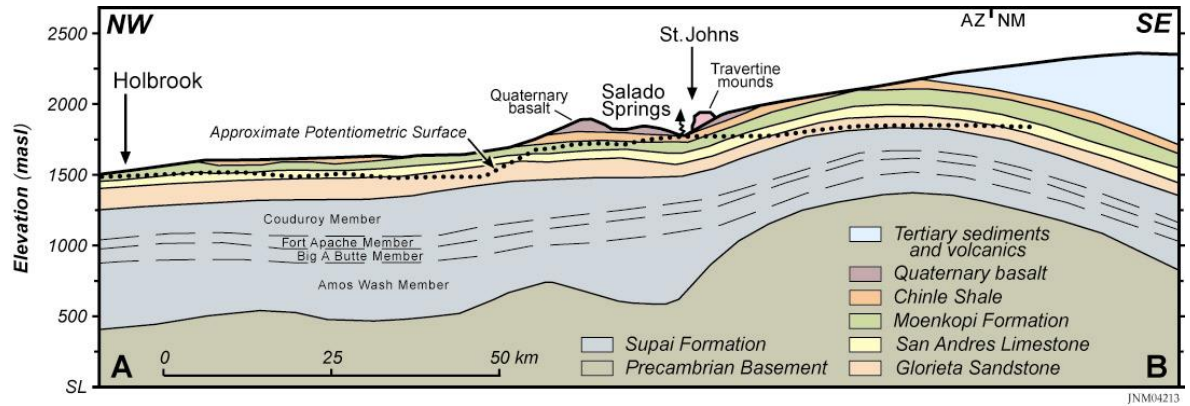


Fig. 3. Northwest-southeast cross-section of the Springerville-St Johns area. The CO₂ reservoir is confined to the Supai Formation within the structural high on the southeast end of the cross-section.

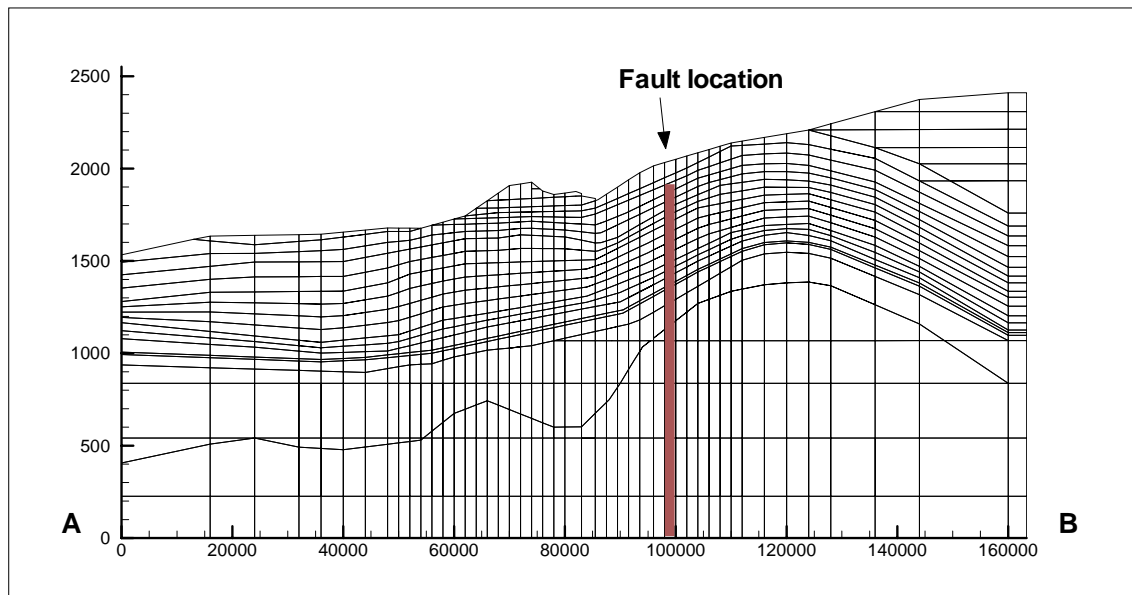


Fig. 4. Integrated finite difference grid used in modeling. The wavy lines are the interfaces between geologic units based on the cross section in Fig. 3. Horizontal and vertical axes are in meters. The dense fault in the center of the section allows for a high permeability flow path.

in the Fort Apache and Big A Butte Members. There is a major fault in the vicinity of the CO₂ field that is represented in the model as a vertical region of high permeability cutting through the horizontal rock units (Fig. 4). Some model runs were attempted without the inclusion of this fault but it was found to be impossible to reproduce the present day distribution of CO₂ without including this fault. Parameters adopted for permeability and porosity are given in Table 2. These parameters are based largely on earlier modeling work at Farnham Dome (White et al. 2003, 2004)

Table 2: Rock properties used in all simulations.

Formation	Permeability (m ²)	Porosity
Basement	2.0×10^{-17}	0.02
Amos Wash	6.2×10^{-16}	0.10
Big A Butte	3.5×10^{-15}	0.17
Anhydrite	1.0×10^{-17}	0.05
Fort Apache	8.0×10^{-13}	0.16
Corduory	2.0×10^{-15}	0.16
Glorieta Sandstone	2.0×10^{-13}	0.10
San Andreas Limestone	2.0×10^{-13}	0.10
Moenkopi	2.0×10^{-17}	0.05
Chinle	2.0×10^{-17}	0.05
Volcanics	2.0×10^{-13}	0.10
Basalt	2.0×10^{-15}	0.10
Fault	1.0×10^{-12}	0.30

Mineralogy

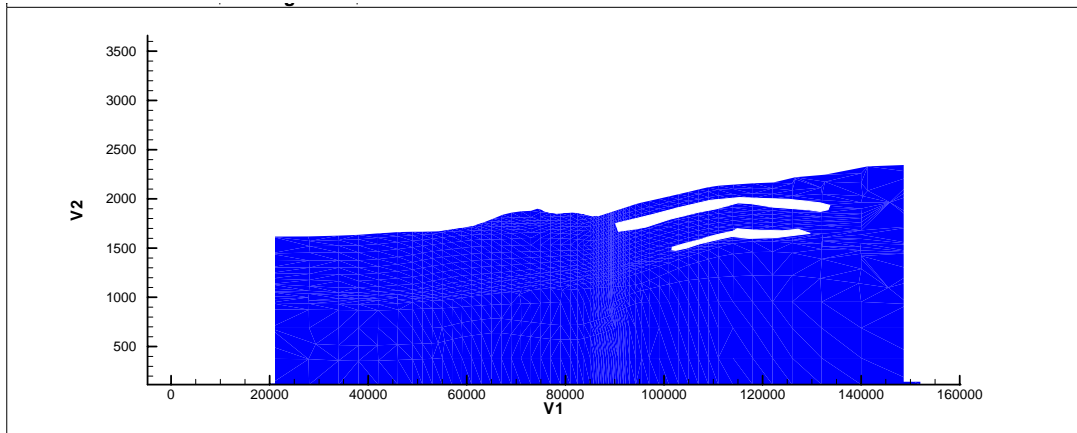
We have included sufficient geochemical complexity to represent the interaction of a simplified reservoir mineralogy (Table 3) with CO₂-rich water. Initial chemical conditions were calculated by first assigning the mineralogy specified in Table 3 to model elements, setting the reservoir fluid to a 0.03 M NaCl water, and then allowing the water to react with the reservoir for 10,000 years. This modified the original mineralogy slightly and provided initial conditions for the fluid reservoir throughout the reservoir.

Simulation Scenarios

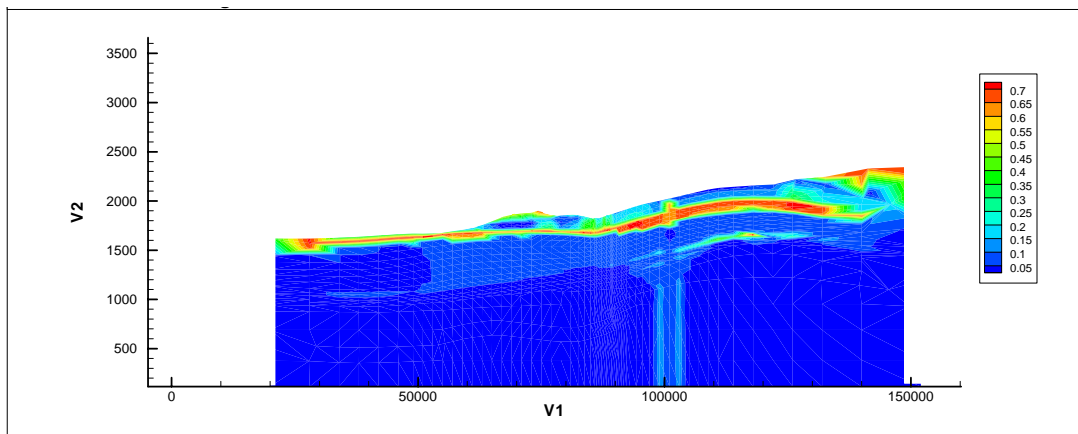
The formation of the travertine was simulated assuming that a 5000 year pulse of CO₂ and water was added at the base of the model beneath the location of the CO₂ reservoir. This model was then run for about 10,000 years. CO₂ reservoir locations, gas saturations and mass fraction of CO₂ in the liquid phase are shown in Figure 5. The gas accumulations occur primarily in the Fort Apache and Big A Butte Members. These deep reservoirs are capped by layers of anhydrite; a third shallow reservoir is capped by the Moenkopi and Chinle Formations. Flows to the surface are small over most of the model with the exception of

Table 3. Mineralogy of the rock units used in the simulations.

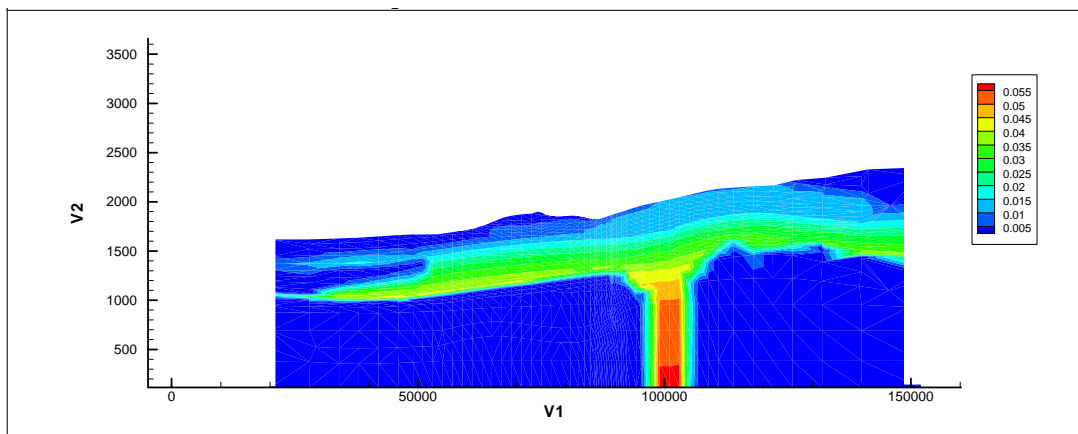
Estimated mineralogy of Springerville-St Johns section (vol %)																
Formation/Unit	Porosity	Quartz	K-Feldspar	Na Feldspar	Ca Feldspar	Calcite	Dolomite	Gypsum	Na-smectite	Kaolinite	Illite	Hematite	Magnetite	Siderite	Pyrite	TOTAL
Tertiary Volcanics	20															
Chinle	5	45	1	1	1	2	2		20	20	1	1	1			100
Moenkopi	5	43	1	1	1	2	5		20	20		2				100
San Andres lst	10	19				2	65		2	2						100
Glorieta sst	20	71	1	1	1	2			2	2						100
Supai-Corduroy	12	63	4			5	5	15	3	3		2				100
Supai-Fort Apache	10	15	1	1		5	45	30	2	1						100
Supai-Big A Butte	17	63	2	2		5	5	15	3	3		2				100
Supai-Amos Wash	6	63	10	10	2	2			3	3		2	5			100
Precambrian	2	50	10	20	5	4			1	1	1		5		1	100



A



B



C

Fig. 5. Results of simulations 10,000 years after initiation of a CO₂ pulse. A. Location of gas reservoirs. B. Gas saturations. C. Mass fraction of CO₂ in the liquid phase.

significant flow from the fault zone associated with the travertine mounds during a 4000 year period, consistent with the age determinations.

Figure 6 shows the magnitude of the surface flow at several different times. 1000 years after the beginning of the pulse of CO₂, surface flows are at almost their peak values. The flows continue at this rate until the magmatic pulse ceases at 5000 years. Note that this figure shows only the flux of transported CO₂ dissolved in water flowing to the surface; there is also a significant flux of CO₂ in the gas phase, as can be seen in Figure 7. These surface flows are consistent with the observed travertine deposits. For example, the deposits near Lyman Lake and Salado Springs cover an area approximately 4 km wide (refer to Fig. 2). If we take a total water flow to the surface of 3.5×10^{-5} (from Fig. 7), from the reactive chemical transport simulation this water has a Ca²⁺ concentration of 0.0165 M. Assuming that all the calcium is deposited as travertine, that the travertine has a density of 1300 kg/m³ and that 30% of the surface area is covered by travertine, we arrive at a travertine thickness of 6.1 meters deposited over the 4000 year period of high surface flows.

In summary, the models indicate that a pulse of CO₂ and water lasting 5000 years is needed to produce realistic flow and travertine deposition rates. Although our model was run for 10,000 years, with the pulse being initiated at 5000 y BP, identical results are obtained if the pulse is initiated at 5000-6000 years BP. Initiating the pulse at a later time, will produce travertine deposits less than 4000 years old.

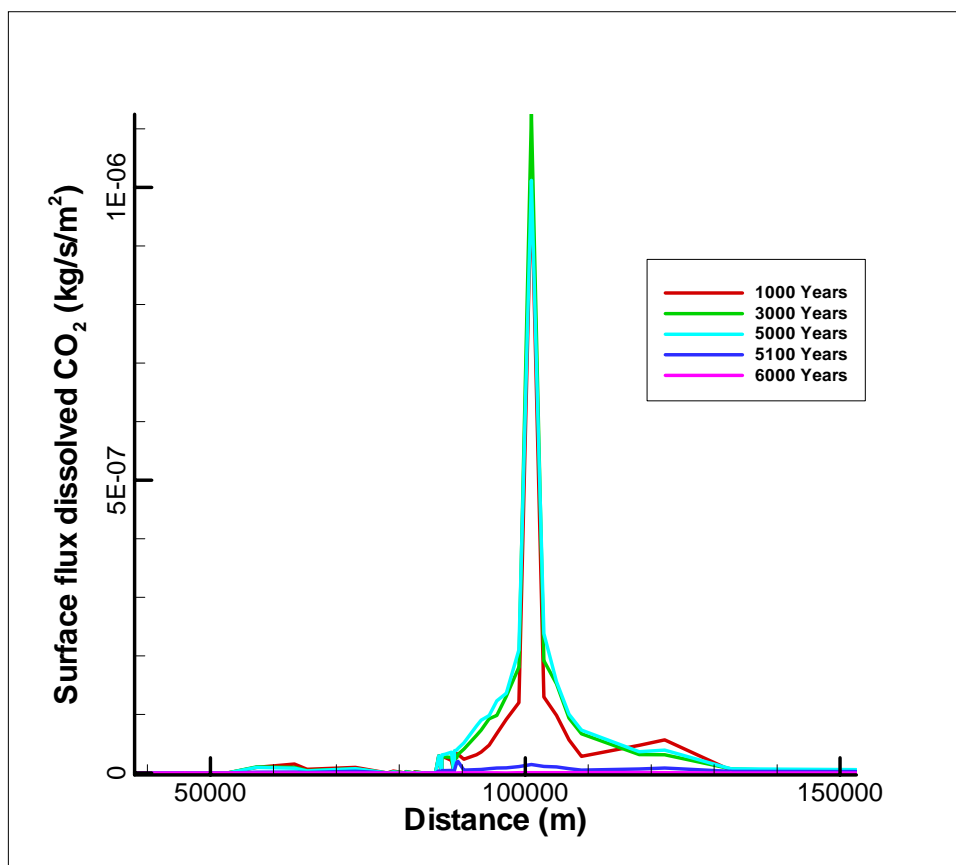


Fig. 6: Surface flux of dissolved CO₂ at Springerville-St. Johns at different times after initiation of the CO₂ pulse.

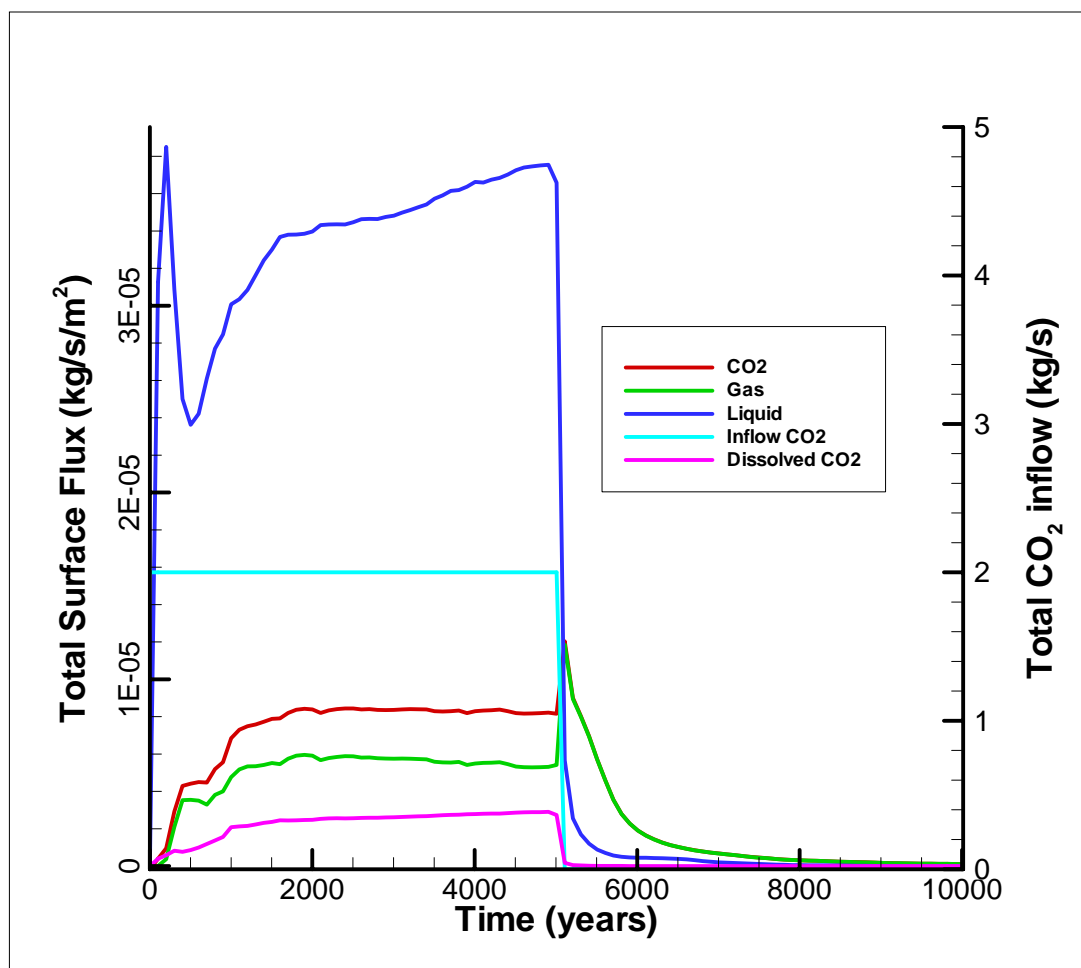


Fig. 7. Total flows to the surface at Springerville-St. Johns as a function of time. In the model, time 0 occurs at 10,000 years BP.

CO₂ Flux Measurements

Soil CO₂ flux surveys have been carried out over three regions with natural occurrences of CO₂ on the Colorado Plateau (Allis et al., 2005; White et al., 2004). At Farnham Dome, Utah, and Springerville-St. Johns, proven CO₂ reservoirs occur at 600 - 800 m depth, but no anomalous CO₂ flux was detected. Background fluxes of up to about 5 g m⁻² day⁻¹ were common in poorly vegetated, arid areas, and up to about 20 g m⁻² day⁻¹ were found at Springerville-St. Johns in heavily vegetated, wet ground adjacent to springs. The higher fluxes are attributed to shallow root zone activity rather than to a deep upflow of CO₂. At the Crystal Geyser-Ten Mile Graben in Utah (Figs. 8-10), localized areas of anomalously high CO₂ flux (~ 100 g m⁻² day⁻¹) occur along a fault zone near visibly degassing features. Isotopic measurements on CO₂ collected from nearby springs indicate that it originated at depth. Evidence of widespread vein calcite at the surface (Farnham Dome) and travertine deposits at the other two areas suggests that discharge of CO₂-rich fluids has occurred in the past. Despite the lack of evidence for significant present day leakage of CO₂ to the atmosphere at Springerville-St. Johns and Crystal Geyser-Ten Mile Graben, there are

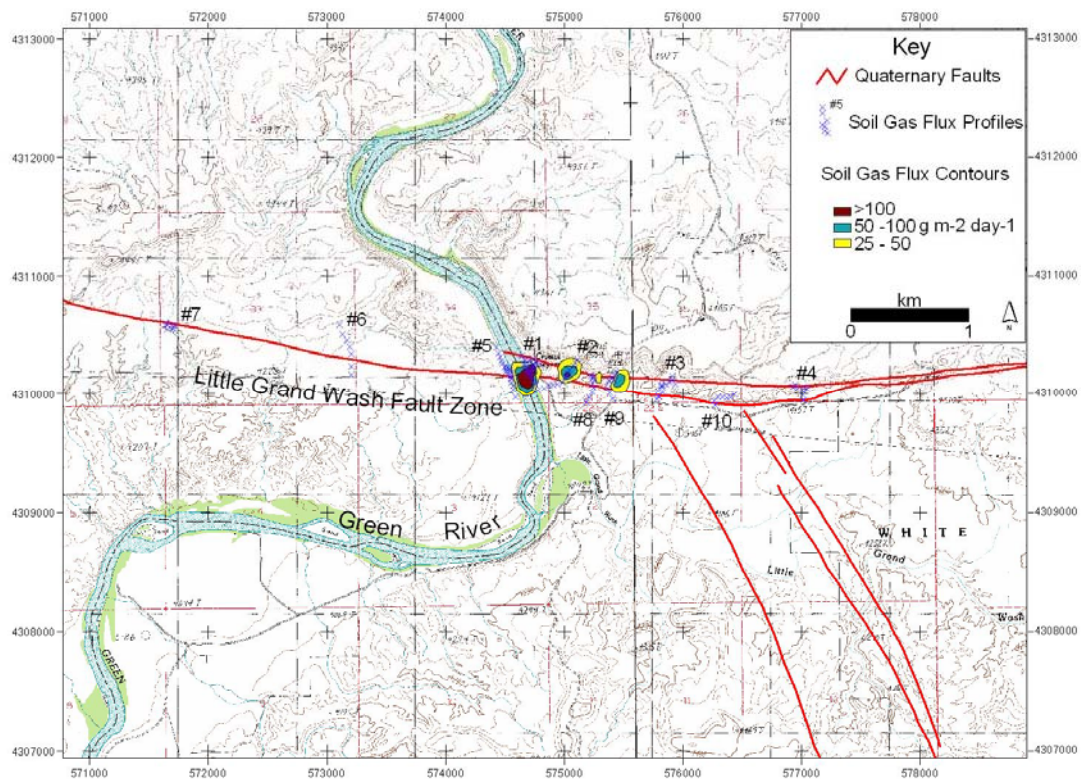


Figure 8. Location of 10 soil CO₂ flux profiles along the Little Grand Wash Fault zone at Crystal Geysers, UT. Fault locations mapped by Doelling (2001). Each cross represents a single flux measurement. Green areas show vegetation.

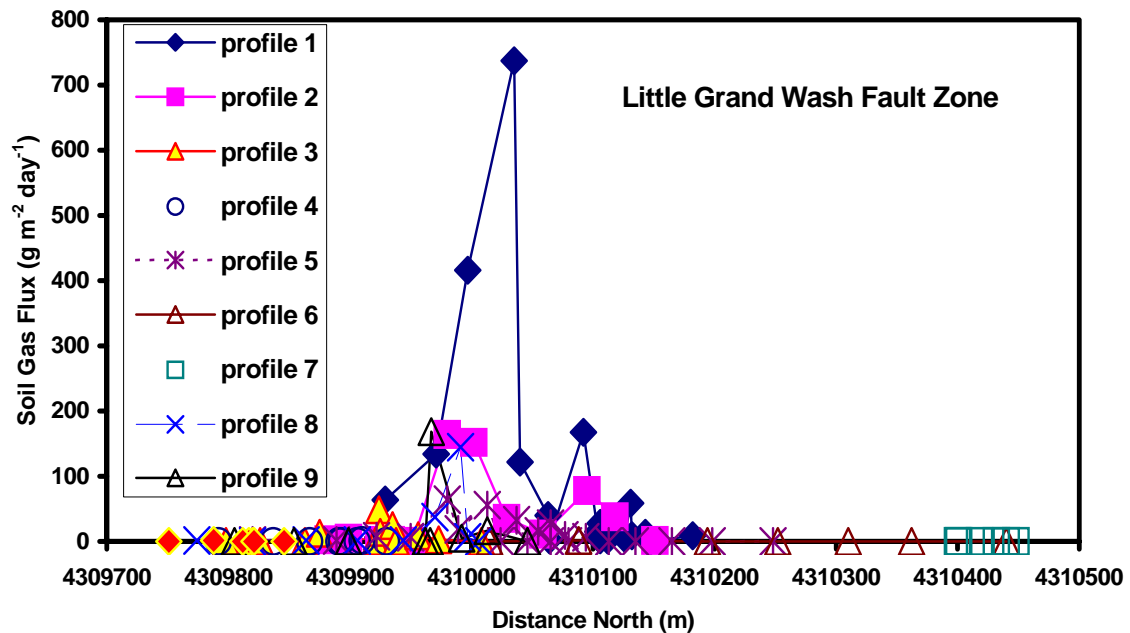


Fig. 9. Pattern of CO₂ flux results from Crystal Geysers obtained by superimposing data based on the northing coordinate of the measurement site.

1. Investigations of natural CO₂ reservoirs have provided information on the mobility of CO₂ that was not anticipated.
2. Leakage of CO₂ cannot be predicted. At Springerville-St. Johns and Farhnam Dome, no surface flux of CO₂ was detected, despite the presence of shallow CO₂ reservoirs.
3. Despite the lack of evidence for significant present day leakage of CO₂ to the atmosphere at Springerville-St. Johns there are significant outflows of high-bicarbonate water suggesting continuous migration of CO₂ from depth. Dissolved CO₂ could be the main source of CO₂ leakage from a sequestration site. Chemical analyses of ground water must be included in any monitoring program.
4. Leakage of CO₂ may occur episodically. At Springerville-St. Johns, outflows of ground water containing dissolved CO₂ deposited extensive sheets and domes of travertine (calcite) during the last 4000 years. CO₂ not trapped as calcite was discharged to the atmosphere.
5. At Crystal Geyser-Ten Mile Graben, leakage occurs at isolated points along fault zones. The very localized nature of the CO₂ flux anomalies, and presents challenges for effective, long term monitoring of CO₂ leakage.
6. At Springerville-St. Johns, the permanent trapping of CO₂ in mineral phases appears to be insignificant. Only trace amounts of dawsonite, a mineral generally considered to be an important trap have been observed. The bulk of the CO₂ occurs as gas accumulations and dissolved carbonate species in the ground water.
7. Broad asymmetrical anticlines occurring beneath the Colorado Plateau have the potential to sequester CO₂ from collocated power plants. The mobility of CO₂ after 30 years of injection was numerically simulated. At 1000 years, 21% of the CO₂ was found to be permanently sequestered in mineral phases, 52% occurred as a gas or was dissolved in ground water and 17% had leaked to the surface. Leakage stopped after 1500 years, at which point 70% of the CO₂ was permanently sequestered.
8. The importance of mineral trapping may be overestimated. Further investigations of natural systems are required to assess its importance.

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